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Mr. Yale was formerly Special Agent of the Department of State in Egypt, American Military Observer with the Egyptian Expeditionary Forces in Palestine, and Technical Adviser to the American Section of the International Commission on Mandates in Turkey and is now in the department of history, University of New Hampshire. Among his numerous writings bearing on the problems of the Near East are: Non-Assimilation of Israel, *Atlantic Monthly,* August, 1922; Islam versus Christianity, *North American Review,* February, 1923; Geographical Features of Allenby's Last Campaign, *Bulletin Geographical Society of Philadelphia,* October, 1929.

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Mr. Halverson was formerly a member of the faculties of Joliet High School and Iowa State Teachers College. He is now Departmental Specialist in Teaching of Geography in the University of Wisconsin. In October, 1928, he contributed "Geography in the Joliet Township High School" to the JOURNAL, and in December, "Geography in Teachers' Colleges," to *Education.*

This article together with the one by Miss Dexheimer, which appeared last month, will be of great assistance to all progressive teachers. All the illustrations used by Mr. Halverson were taken from earlier issues of the JOURNAL thus showing very clearly the opportunities open to our readers.

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Dr. Bogardus is Assistant Professor of Geography at the University of Pennsylvania.

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THE INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHY ON ARAB NATIONALISM

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THE CONFLICT IN PALESTINE

The conflict in Palestine between Arab and Jew is primarily a struggle for the possession of the Holy Land. If it were limited to a dispute between the Jewish and Arabic inhabitants of Palestine, it is quite evident that the Arabs would be victorious. The fact is however that both parties to the contest are relying upon large groups of racial reserves beyond the borders of the Promised Land. It is these imponderable forces which cause the issue to be in doubt, for the success or failure of the Zionist Movement will depend upon the actions and reactions of these reserves. If the opposition to Zionism among the Arabs should take the form of a strong, united national movement embracing all of the Arab lands in Asia, the hopes of the Jews to realize their national ideals in Palestine would be doomed to ultimate, complete and over-whelming failure.

It is therefore the purpose of this paper to examine some phases of the so-called Arab Nationalist Movement or Movements. The fact of the matter is that as yet there does not exist one united national movement among the Arabs, altho there are indications that present political conditions are extremely favorable to the creation of such a political development. In the past geographic factors have stood in the way of the growth of true Arab nationalism, but modern inventions are tending to modify the effect of geography upon the social and political organizations among the Arabs. Some of these barriers, which in the past have stood in the way of Arab unity, are now being broken down.

THE ARAB LANDS

The peculiar topographical and geographical features of the Arab lands have tended constantly thru several centuries to per-

petuate sectional differences and at the same time to continually renew the vigor and vitality of the Arab race. A brief glance at a topographical and physical map of southwestern Asia will reveal the reasons for this phenomenon. The Arabs of Asia inhabit an

FIG. 1. Sketch map illustrating the geographical unity of Palestine and Syria.

extensive and irregularly shaped semi-desert area stretching from the southern limits of Arabia to the mountains of Kurdistan and Armenia and from the Tigres to the Mediterranean and Red Seas including Arabia, Sinai, Palestine, Syria and the Irak. With the

exception of the peninsula of Sinai this region is surrounded by a more or less continuous fringe along[2] which lie the settled Arab lands; Syria, Palestine, the Hedjaz. Asir, the Yemen, Aden, Hadramant, Oman, el Hasa, Koweit, and the Irak. Each of these divisions has had its own political and social institutions and, save in the case of Syria and Palestine which form[1] one well-defined geographical region, these territories have few contacts with each other. However, the significant fact is that each of them lies in intimate relation to the semi-arid interior; each has constant intercourse with the desert nomads. Paradoxical as it may at first appear the hinterland while forming a serious geographical barrier between the settled areas preventing political and national unity has also at the same time been a powerful factor in maintaining racial and cultural unity. The tribes of the interior,[3] schooled and disciplined by the relentless features of their environment have been a perpetual and never-failing spring from which the fertile settled areas have been constantly and continually replenished.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE NOMADS

Year after year, generation after generation, there has been a steady infiltration from the desert of hardy, vigorous, disciplined nomads. And to this steady, unnoticed, and unrecorded movement one must add the great historic over-flowings from Arabia, which have carried Arab blood and Arabic culture far beyond the restricted Arab lands of Asia. Alien races and alien cultures have been unable to maintain[4] themselves within the limits set by geography to the continual pressure exerted by the Arab nomads of the interior. Despite conquest after conquest by highly organized and civilized states, after centuries[5] of alien rule such parts of the settled fringe as Syria, Palestine and the Irak have remained Arabic because of the fact that the hinterland is inhabited by a fertile race whose increase it is unable to maintain. The conquerors have inevitably been assimilated[6]; their descendants have become Arabs;

[1] Geo. Adam Smith, Historical Geog. of the Holy Land, p. 8.

[2] Robert Graves, Lawrence and the Arabian Adventure, p. 45. Doubleday, Doran & Co. 1928.

[3] *Ibid*, pp. 45, 46.

[4] Robert Graves, p. 44.

[5] Gibbon, History of Decline and Fall of Roman Empire, Vol. 5, Chap. 50, p. 82-3.

[6] Robertson Smith. Religion of the Semites.

the people of the desert have invariably demonstrated their ultimate ability to retain possession of their borderlands.

If the Arabs of the interior have been the source of the racial and cultural unity of the Arabic fringe, they have likewise been the cause of its political and national weakness. Physically separated from one another by formidable geographic barriers, the settled Arabs have been obliged to organize into small political units incapable of rendering aid to one another and of resisting the onslaught of larger and more highly organized political groups. The desert has divided them. Furthermore the development of a strong local national movement in any one of the divisions of the Arab fringe has had to contend with the disintegrating force of the nomads. For the Arabs of the interior have unconsciously maintained the racial and cultural solidarity of the Arab lands against a narrower regional nationalism as well as against alien civilizations. No clearer example of this can be cited than that of the conflict between the nascent Syrian Nationalism of prewar days and the Cherifian movement during and immediately after the World War.

NATIONAL MOVEMENTS

Before 1914 the political and nationalistic movements among the Arabs, with the exception perhaps of the ancient struggle of the Yemenites against Turkish tyranny, were limited to those in Syria and Mesopotamia. Aroused by such stirring events of the first quarter of the twentieth century as the Revolution of the Young Turks and the Balkan Wars, the Syrian and Mesopotamian Arabs began to dream of deliverance from the misrule of the Turks. Secret societies were organized and plans for a revolt were laid. In Syria the leaders looked to France for aid and support against the Turks; in Mesopotamia the Arab spirit was more uncompromising and feared the Europeans as much as the Turks.[7] In the west the agitation rapidly took the form of a Syrian national movement embracing both Syria and Palestine tho in the latter place it had few supporters. The movement received the support of the various Christian sects as well as of the Moslems because it was Syrian rather than Arab nationalism. It was a sectional movement which the non-Moslems dared to support because it looked to nationalistic Europe rather than to theocratic Arabia; they did not fear that they would be inundated by an Islamic flood flowing out of Arabia.

[7] Graves, p. 53.

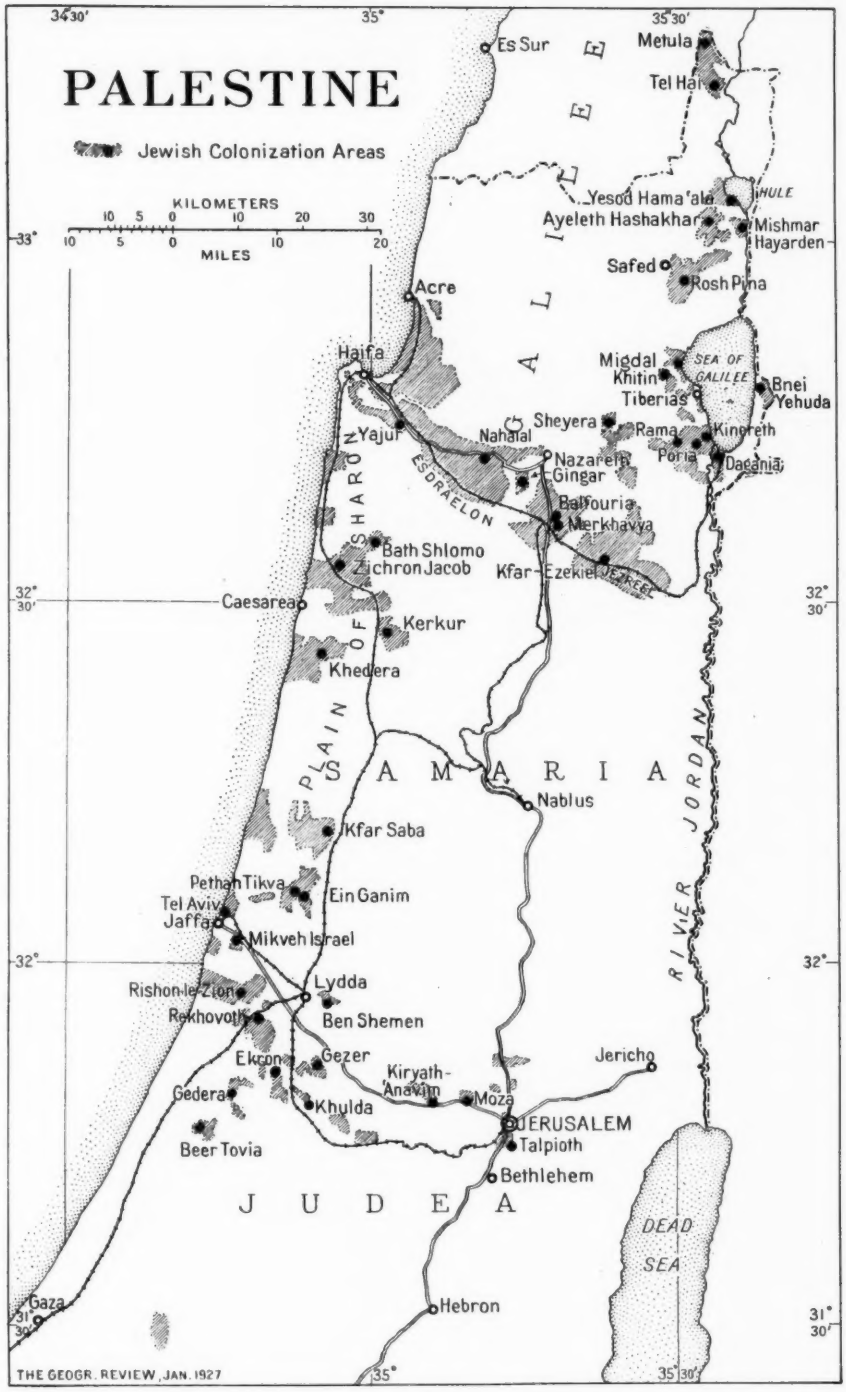

FIG. 2. The Jewish colonies in Palestine. Courtesy of the *Geographical Review* published by the American Geographical Society of New York.

The exigencies of the World War gave birth to the Cherifian Movement under Emir Faisal and T. E. Lawrence, which altho it originated in the Hedjaz and received potent assistance from the Syrians and Mesopotamians was essentially a desert movement. And as such it spread discord among the Syrians destroying, temporarily at least, the Syrian National Movement which had so recently gotten under way. The Christians were afraid of Cherifian control; liberal groups among the more moderate Moslems disliked the idea of Meccan rule; the more fanatical Moslems welcomed a régime which they trusted could be used to reënforce Islamic domination.

Changing Arabia

Valiant efforts were made by the more far-sighted leaders to arouse and maintain the spirit of Syrian nationalism but the desert and the people of the desert had again played their historic rôle of opposition to any sectional or separatist movement. The desert had claimed its own. But the victory of the nomads is not so secure as it has been in the past. The war has brought changes which may go far to eliminate some of the geographical factors which have prevented the town Arabs from organizing the political union of the Arab lands. Automobiles and aeroplanes are annihilating time and distance in western Asia as they are doing in Europe and America. Motor cars and busses have brought Mesopotamia and Syria and Palestine so near to one another that it is only a question of time before they will be more closely knitted together than ever before in their long history. The desert is ceasing to play its ancient rôle in Arab affairs. Furthermore aeroplanes in destroying the immunity from attack of the desert people will force upon them a different form of civilization from that of the ancient one of tribal warfare. Already in the revived Wahibi Movement under Ibn Saud, which has long since replaced the artificially created and stimulated Cherifian Movement, one sees an indication of the coming changes in Arabia Deserta.

Should then these ancient geographic limits be conquered and the racial solidarity of the Arabs crystallized into a true Arab national unity, the Zionists would have to face both the old forces which emanated from the Arab hinterland from time immemorial and the new forces of nationalism. In such an event the only hope for a Jewish National Home in Palestine would lie in an immediate

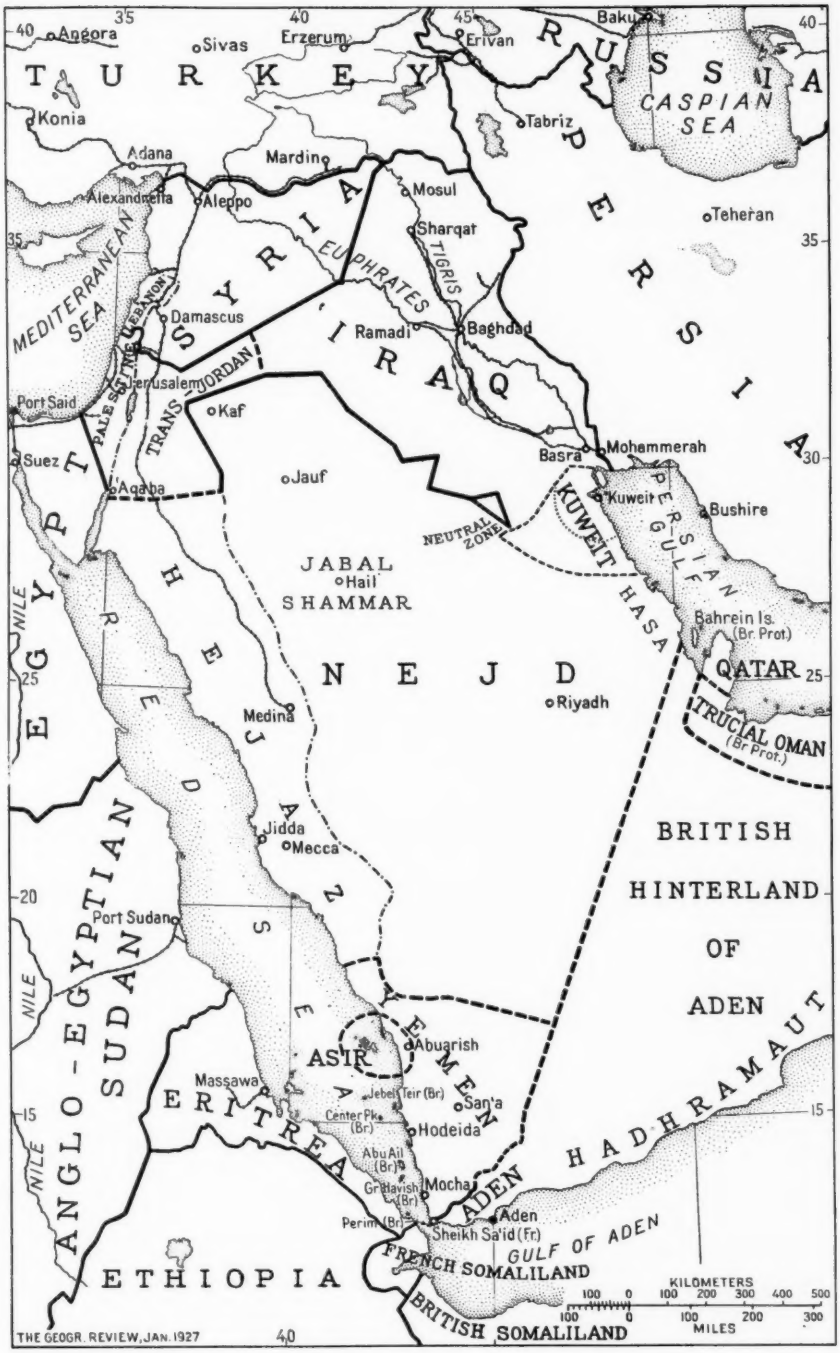

FIG. 3. The Nejd and adjacent countries showing the geographical situation of a semi-arid, semi-desert hinterland surrounded by a fertile fringe. Courtesy of the *Geographical Review* published by the American Geographical Society of New York.

understanding with the Arabs. The best advice the Zionist leaders could follow would be that given in Matthew: "Agree with thine adversary quickly, while thou art in the way with him....."

N.B.—If this paper has any claim to attention it is that it draws attention to the fact that the Arab hinterland has not only been a unifying force maintaining Arab racial unity but also that it has been a force which disintegrated national movements among the settled Arabs.

George Adam Smith in "The Historical Geography of the Holy Land" pointed out that Syria was a refuge of the drifting population of Arabia and that Syria drew its population from Arabia. He noted that the Semites of Arabia were constantly beating upon Syria.

Graves in "Lawrence and the Arabian Adventure" speaks of the "outer fringes of watered country" which form the desert hinterland. He also elaborates T. E. Lawrence's theory of the circulation of the Arabs in Arabia and lays stress on the fact that no foreign peoples have been able to maintain a foothold for long in the Semitic lands altho he does not explain why.

Robertson Smith in "Religion of the Semites" stresses the homogeneity of character of all the old Semitic lands due to the constant recruital from the hinterland.

As to the geographical unity of Palestine and Syria this has been noted by most writers from the time of the Greeks and Romans.

Gibbon in his "History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" in a chapter devoted to Arabia notes the fact that conquests of Arab lands have been temporary or local exceptions to the general rule of Arab independence.

T. E. Lawrence is the authority for the statement of the exclusiveness of the Mesopotamian Societies, while Aehmed Djemal Pasha proved conclusively the close connection of the Syrian Movement with the French.

There is ample authority and precedent for most of the statements of facts in this brief paper, however, the conclusions reached in regard to the twofold effect of these facts on modern political movements is to the best of my knowledge and belief original. Besides two years of constant personal interviews with Arabs, and Europeans familiar with the Arab lands, I have had the privilege of reading the Arab Bulletin published during the war by the British, the confidential reports of the Department of State and the American Peace Commission, the so-called King-Crane Commission's report and many other confidential documents. Two years of my time were devoted almost exclusively to a study of the Arab question in the Arab lands thru personal investigation and personal contact with the leaders of the various political movements.

My conclusions are my own and are somewhat at variance with those of the British political observers.

PICTURES IN THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY

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INTRODUCTION

In this discussion of pictures in the teaching of geography it is necessary to state that the methods used presuppose a "relationship" or "adjustment" philosophy of geography. Such a functioning, meaningful geography is a prerequisite to the selection of pictures of high geographic quality, as well as to the highly geographic use of the pictures selected. Pictures used geographically should contribute concrete understandings which in turn contribute to the discovery and interpretation of relationships of geographic significance. Such geographic relationships may be termed "relationships between the cultural and natural landscapes," or interpreted as "man's adjustment of his activities to the natural environment." The teacher need not quibble over terminology, but must have some such modern concept of geography, if the use of pictures is to be of real geographic value.

For example, many geography texts carry pictures of growing corn as part of the illustrative material of the Corn Belt unit. To many the study of corn in the Corn Belt is merely a memorizing of the fact that corn is the outstanding crop of the region, while the region is outstanding in the production of corn in the nation. Certain place locations are commonly tied up with such a study of facts, but there is often lacking the proper emphasis upon the relationships between the location of the Corn Belt and such factors as climate, surface, soils, drainage, and location. It is difficult to show all of the items above directly in pictures, but much may be inferred from pictures which is not definitely shown.

An ideal Corn Belt picture, therefore, should show as much of this natural landscape as possible, so that students may work out hypotheses at least as to relationships involved. Such a picture should always have in it some indication, in addition to the corn itself, of the activities of man. One authority on the use of pictures in geography has said that an ideal picture of high geographic quality should show "human activity in its natural setting." A use of pictures showing the items of the cultural and natural landscape in the Corn Belt will make concrete and understandable the activi-

ties of man in the region as such activities are related to the environment.

The use of pictures of high geographic quality aids in making geography real and concrete, in providing material regarding which interpretations may be made, and in developing the ability to think geographically. This ability to think geographically is one of the real contributions the teaching of geography should make to the education of the child of the elementary school. The interpretation of the geographic relationships between the landscape items shown by pictures presents one of the outstanding opportunities for training in geographical thinking.

To the average teacher with little opportunity for field trips, all of the available material must be utilized to the full to make realistic the human activities as they are related to the natural landscape in the region being studied. Most of the modern geography texts have good pictures, but few make them integral parts of the teaching units. It is, therefore, necessary that teachers be equipped to make full use of such visual material as is available.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF PICTURES

To organize picture study, it is necessary to classify pictures upon the basis of their geographic quality. By geographic quality is meant the completeness with which the relationships between the works of man and the natural landscape are shown or suggested. In such pictures of high geographic quality there are relationships which are obvious or clear, there are suggested relationships which must be checked to determine their quality, and there may be involved or hidden relationships not at all apparent in the picture. In the last two types of cases it is necessary by further study and investigation to determine the truth of the suggested or involved relationships.

While it is difficult to pigeonhole pictures because of the subjectivity of personal judgments, it is possible to roughly classify them on the basis of their usefulness in contributing to geographic understandings.

Class I. Pictures Possessing Primary or Inherent Geographic Quality.

Such pictures show the works of man, or items of the cultural landscape, and items of the natural landscape. Some of the relationships between the two types of items will be obvious and

clear, others may be suggested, subject to later verification. Undoubtedly there are many which are operative in the region, but in no way show up in the picture, and must come from other sources of geographic information.

Pictures of this class commonly fall into two groups. The first group of pictures show actual human activity in its setting, and is illustrated by Figure 1.

Here is a rice field, with workers ankle deep in water. But much more than the actual human activity is shown, for in the background is a natural vegetation of grasses, palms and other trees. The rice field is situated on flattish land in the immediate foreground, but higher and more rolling ground is visible. The white head-

FIG. 1

dresses of the workers, their dark skinned arms and legs, their stature—all are suggestive. It is obvious that the location of the rice field is related to the low flattish land, capable of easy irrigation. The apparently copious supply of water suggests a heavy rainfall at certain seasons of the year at least. The natural vegetation indicates a low latitude climate by the presence of the palms, but the lack of a heavy forest may indicate that the heavy rainfall is seasonal. From this very brief consideration of a single picture it is apparent that the possibilities in picture use are almost unlimited. Certain facts are shown, but it is in stimulating a desire to interpret the facts, to solve the problems suggested, that the use of pictures in geography serves in creating a learning situation.

You notice that no mention has been made of the location of the scene just considered. Fortunately there is no caption with the picture. Right here it is possible to raise the question, "Would as

much geographical thinking have been done regarding the picture in question had there been a caption telling that the scene showed a rice field in Hawaii?'' It would appear that in many cases the absence of a caption immediately below the scene serves as an immediate stimulant to the pupil.

Pictures of the second group show the works of man in their setting, without the human workers, as is illustrated by Figure 2.

In short, the results of human activity are shown, without too much attention being drawn to the human workers. In the illus-

FIG. 2

tration the relationship between the material of the buildings and the natural or cultivated vegetation from which it comes needs investigation. The climatic conditions are suggested, but must be checked, and further investigation must determine what the crop behind the building to the right is, if it is a cultivated crop. Here again it is apparent that a great variety of stimulating problems may be suggested by a single picture, provided that picture possesses high geographic quality.

Class II. Pictures of Secondary Geographic Quality.

Pictures in this class may equal in value for certain teaching purposes the pictures of Class I quality, but they do not convey so complete a landscape picture, regarding which geographic think-

ing may be done. Pictures of this class naturally fall into two groups. The first group pictures the forms of the natural landscape, with very little, if any, cultural landscape items of interpre-

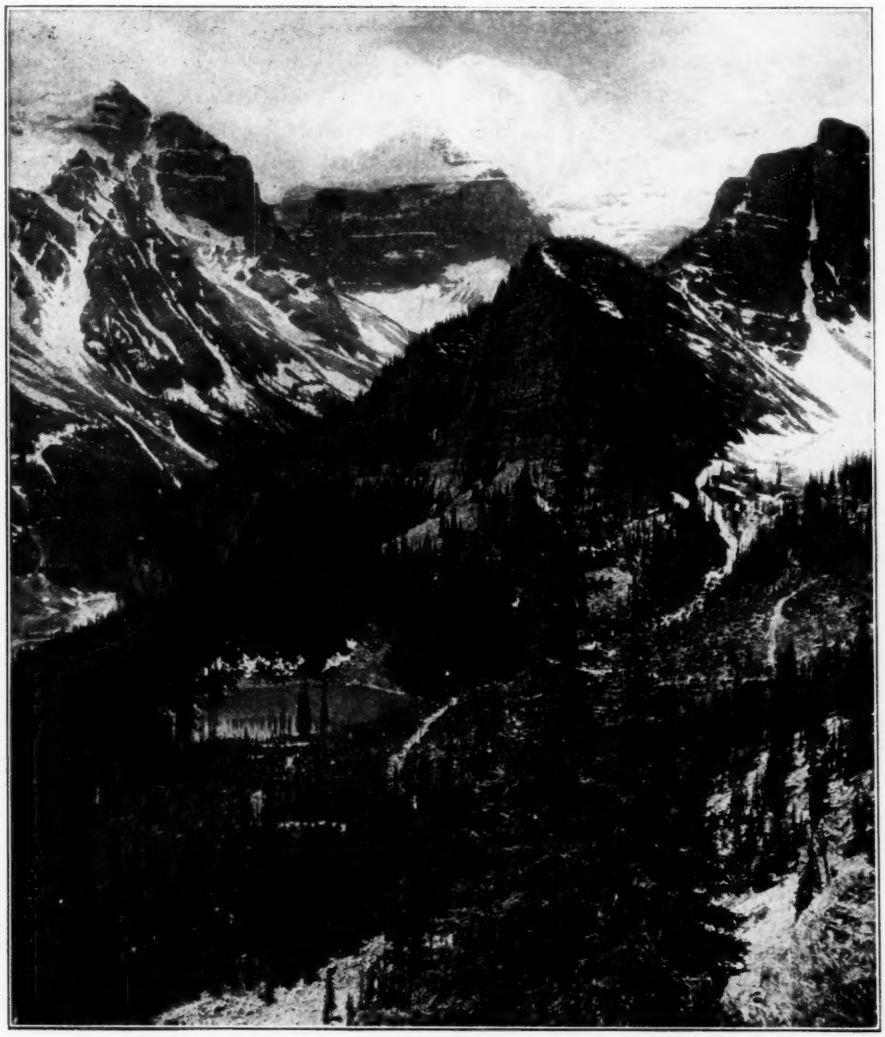

FIG. 3

tative value visible. Yet the pictures of this group are valuable, as may be seen from a consideration of Figure 3. (Lake Agnes in Canadian Rockies).

This picture conveys a concept of mountainous topography which with a little analyzation is a full explanation of the lack of

evidences of human activity. The lack of level land, the scanty tree growth, the snow, the indications of a severe climate, are clearly causes for little utilization. The addition of a rustic resort hotel would indicate a form of utility which might be important in such a region. It is apparent that this picture gives a true concept of the scene in question, but from it one might incorrectly conclude that the region were entirely lacking in human activity. It is this lack, this failure to show any human utility, which places such a picture in a lower class of geographic quality than Figures 1 and 2.

The second group of pictures in this class show cultural items almost exclusively. The picture of a section of a city might be taken as an example. Such a picture might show the street pattern, the types of pavement, the types of buildings, but the natural items might be so largely hidden or obliterated that it would be impossible to arrive at any definite relationship concepts until other sources had been consulted. Such a picture might be useful, but it lacks inherent geographic quality just as much as does the picture showing only the natural items of the landscape.

Pictures of Class II, therefore, are suggestive, give definite kinds of concepts, but commonly serve as starting points in geographic study. In more advanced study they become more usable, because of the definite special concepts which they contribute to the rounded out study of a region.

Class III. Pictures of Tertiary Geographic Quality.

Pictures of this class are seldom valuable to teachers of geography, tho they occasionally may be used to illustrate some single point. As illustrative of such pictures might be cited close-ups of manufacturing processes, public buildings, or other forms which are so specialized that little of geographic significance is shown. Such pictures have little usable geographic quality and seldom contribute to geographic thinking. In some cases public buildings may show characterizing geographic relationships through the use of significant local building materials, but it is in the utilitarian dwellings of the people that the significant relationships are brought out.

SPECIAL USES OF PICTURES

Most teachers who use pictures at all have some organized technique or procedure, but few have the time to differentiate and

analyze the various ways in which visual material may be used. It seems advisable to attempt a differentiation of methods, as an aid to better delimitation of the definite objectives of picture study.

The Reconnaissance Use of Pictures

This use is in contrast with the detailed or intensive use. In introducing material, pictures may be made to serve very definite purposes. They may be used to arouse interest in the unit to be undertaken, and in this use out-of-the-ordinary pictures, introducing disconcerting data, are probably the most stimulating. By disconcerting data are meant concepts or ideas which are much at variance with the preconceived ideas of students regarding a region. By showing strikingly that their ideas regarding the subject are incorrect or inadequate, a need for the study in question is suggested.

In diagnostic testing in the middle of a unit of work pictures may be used to check the concreteness of the understandings the students are gaining. This use is time conserving, in that it shows definitely in just what phases of the work the children are failing. In a survey final review or in final testing pictures may be used, with some outstanding item or relationship receiving the emphasis, rather than a complete study and interpretation being the object.

In several of the above uses the "cross-section" method is useful. In this method a series of pictures crossing the continent of North America might serve as an example. These pictures, which might roughly follow the fortieth parellel across the country, could be used in introducing the study of the continent, and should show the characteristic relationships in the various geographic regions traversed. The same group of pictures might be used as well in a rapid review of the continent. Some illustrated lectures of a geographic nature follow this plan, the lecture being essentially an introductory lesson on the continent.

The Detailed Intensive Use of Pictures

The Introductory Use. The introductory use of pictures may be carried on in the detailed use of pictures in dealing with small units. This use involves the development of the basic concrete imagery of the landscape of the region to be studied. In this use the pictures should be studied in detail, not only for the definite facts which they give, but for the relationships which they indicate

FIG. 4. A Samoan "fale" in course of construction. Copyright—Underwood and Underwood.

or suggest. Other sources of information round out the understandings first suggested by the work with pictures.

The Orientation Use. This use has for its first purpose the placing of the student in the environmental unit which he is studying, in other words, "getting the student on the ground." He should get the "feel" of the region, sense its outstanding characteristics, recognize that the region has a personality of its own, and then proceed to further study of the region after this orientation thru the use of pictures.

An additional phase of this is the development of an understanding of the various places in the region with relation to one another, commonly best shown in a distant view, perhaps showing a city in its setting. For this type of work the airplane picture of good composition is unsurpassed.

Definition Use. This use functions best in giving concrete imagery for activities or items which are entirely outside the experience of the child. In such cases a single picture may give a clear concept which lines of printed description would leave vague and indefinite. As an example might be given the case of a primitive dwelling, made of thatch. Children in this country know nothing of such dwellings or the use of materials immediately at hand in the building of dwellings. A single picture will define such a dwelling and give a concrete concept more efficiently than any other method.

Interpretative Use. Detailed interpretation most nearly exhausts all the possibilities of using pictures in teaching. It involves the analyzing of all the items of the natural and cultural landscape, the classification of the obvious and suggested relationships, with their possible significance. Such detailed interpretation ends with the most complete understanding possible of all the items shown in the picture, with their significant geographic relationships. Obviously, this use involves the use of all the interpretative material available dealing with the region being studied. The interpretative activity, the geographic thinking, involves so much in the way of raising problems solvable at the level at which the work is being carried on that in many units the picture study may serve as the major motivating element.

Detailed Checking Use. This use comes toward the close of the study of a unit, and involves the use of pictures in detailed checking to determine the understandings of the students. The extent of this use depends upon the time available and the difficulty of the

material covered. Since geography to be meaningful to children must result in as great a mass of concrete imagery experiences as is possible, the detailed checking use, especially with children inexperienced in the use of pictures, and therefore, weak in concrete concepts, is most worthwhile.

Detailed Summary Recall or Review. In the summary recall use pictures may be used for (1) the actual visual facts which they give regarding a region and the geographical relationships shown or suggested, (2) for the visual imagery which they stimulate the student to reconstruct regarding the geographic relationships and facts having geographic quality which are characteristic of the region of which the picture shows a part, and (3) for the interpretative activity which will be stimulated by the realities of the picture and recalled from the visual imagery which the picture stimulated, resulting in a great mass of interpretative material dealing with the relationships of the region.

Use in Final Testing. Pictures may be used in testing to check the geographic understandings students have gained from the work with the material covered. Thus understandings gained regarding the climate of a region may well be checked by showing a picture of natural vegetation and growing crops, and asking the student to tell definite things regarding the climatic conditions to which the forms in the picture are related. Pictures which the students have never seen in the study of the region may well be used in testing. In all picture testing work definite questions should be asked, which bring out relationships at the level of the student. Phases of the special uses of pictures, combinations of the special uses, original uses devised by the teacher—all suggest ways of using pictures in testing.

One of the real difficulties in using pictures in testing lies in the cost of procuring a large enough number of pictures to enable each child to have a copy of the same picture at the same time. This difficulty may, to a degree, be overcome by using pictures in the textbook. The interpretative work may be done with certain pictures, while other equally valuable pictures may be ignored. Finally such pictures may be used in testing. Another method is to have a set of pictures, including no duplicates, with questions attached, the questions being of about the same difficulty, so that the same time allowance be given for each. The pictures with the attached questions are rotated around the class, on signal from the

teacher. Other questions independent of pictures may be used in this type of testing, the test may be objective or subjective, but in any case the answers should not exceed one line. The time allowance for each question should not exceed two minutes, with one minute preferable. In this type of testing, whether used with pictures or with cards, there must be the same number of cards or pictures as there are students in the class.

In the foregoing discussion of special uses of pictures, very fine distinctions have been drawn between uses. In actual practice, the actual methods of use may grade into one another so as to give a use which is a combination of one or more of those considered above. All of the special uses are capable of an infinite number of variations. It is well to attempt to isolate the various methods, however, so that objectives may be better kept in view, making possible a more definite check upon the concrete understandings gained by the students.

THE GRADATION OF PICTURES

It is difficult to classify pictures on the basis of their difficulty, since actually a picture presenting interpretative difficulties to one, might not do so to another who has had contacts with the items shown in the scene. It is necessary, therefore, to recognize that gradation in picture study is based upon the interpretative study required to make the desired use of the picture.

Thus, the same picture might be used in the fourth grade as in the seventh. In the fourth grade the picture would be used only for the obvious items and relationships which it brings out without a great deal of study of supplementary material. The use of the picture is definitely limited by the level of instruction, or the level of the interpretative power that the children bring to bear on the picture. The same picture used in the seventh grade by the children experienced in picture study would result in a mass of experience and information being brought to bear upon the picture, with detailed interpretative and problem-raising activity which would be impossible at the lower level, or with children without a background of landscape interpretative power gained thru work with pictures. College students, following this line of thought, should therefore bring to bear the greatest mass of information and experience, and gain the most from the use of pictures. As a matter of fact, college students apparently seldom even glance at the pictures

in their textbooks. This is good evidence that nowhere in their school career have they received any instruction in the values in the use of pictures. One of the results of this weakness is the difficulty experienced in getting college students to see things concretely. They do not realize that many items can be anything but abstract, and they then are satisfied to try to memorize abstractions, when they could just as easily build up concrete imagery experience which would make their partial understandings really meaningful. Exactly the same difficulty is experienced all along the line of educational experience. The point is that this weakness should be corrected in the earlier stages of the child's educational career, and the scientific use of pictures, whether in geography classes or elsewhere is one of the real aids in making understandings concrete.

With more and more picture study, there should be a piling up of information and experience dealing with landscape items, with resulting added power in the interpretation of pictures in the light of actual or suggested geographical relationships. Pictures rank next to actual observation in giving the student concrete concepts regarding landscape items and their attendant human activities. The geography teacher, attempting to teach landscapes and the related human activities over the world, is handicapping herself greatly if pictures are not used wherever and whenever they can function to give concrete experiences and understandings to children.

PROBLEMS IN TEACHING REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

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In presenting the geography of a continent or of any large area most teachers are confronted with numerous problems which vary in accordance with the methods used and the area to be considered. Three problems, in particular, are common to all those who use the regional method. These are concerned with the size of the sub-divisions or regions to be used, the best method of familiarizing the students with the human life and activity of such regions, and the task of so tying together the regions that a unified picture of the continent or of the large area being considered is retained. Each of these problems is important and each merits careful consideration on the part of the teacher.

In considering these problems and in suggesting methods which

may aid in solving them illustrations will be drawn from the teaching of the geography of the United States by the regional method. Before proceeding with such consideration it must be remembered that the prime objective of the regional method, as of every other method of teaching geography, is to thoroly familiarize the students with the inter-relationships between life and environment in the area under consideration. Any method which achieves this objective is desirable while one which fails to achieve it is undesirable and should be discontinued.

PRELIMINARY SURVEY OF THE REGION TO BE CONSIDERED

The best practice in taking up an area, such as the United States, is first to give a general picture of the human element of the country. This may be done by describing the various types of people which make up the population, by showing where the population is located, and by a general discussion of the various types of life and activities to be found. Next the general physical environment is considered and such phases as climate, soil, topography, and natural resources are studied. The environment is then related to the human element by showing the influences of the various elements of environment upon the location of population and the type of life to be found. In this general survey of the country the construction of maps showing such things as population density, rainfall, natural vegetation, relief, and natural resources, will be found to be of great value if the class is sufficiently advanced. If maps are constructed they should all be of the same size so that they may be more easily compared and it is well to have the population map transparent so that it can be superimposed over the others and the relations between locations of population and the various environmental influences can be clearly demonstrated.

HUMAN USE REGIONS

After this general survey has been completed the teacher is confronted with the task of dividing the country into sub-divisions in order that a more intensive study may be made of the geographical conditions existing in each. The most widely accepted basis for such division is the human use region, that is, a region within which the dominant human activity is the same. This basis of division has many advantages over the physiographic basis in most cases where the regional method is used. If the human use basis

is selected the teacher is at once faced with the problem of determining the number and size of such regions. This determination must of necessity be largely arbitrary. The country may be divided into a large number of small regions each containing some important human activity. Some current authors have attempted to divide the United States in this way. Such areas as the Pennsylvania Piedmont, the Eastern Shore, the Trans-Pecos Highlands and the Edwards Plateau are small regions which are accorded the dignity of separate discussion by certain authors. This minute division renders the teaching of the geography of the United States very difficult. The students are confused and bewildered by the number of units used. They lose all sense of the relationship of these regions to each other and to the life of the nation and at the conclusion of the study they retain no complete picture of the country but rather a group of pictures of small isolated areas. To eliminate this difficulty it is desirable to use only large divisions. Such sections as "The Industrial and Commercial Northeast," "The Eastern Trucking Region" (the Atlantic Coastal Plain), "The Coal, Waterpower, and Timber Region" (the Appalachian Area), "The North Central Manufacturing and Raw Material Region" (the Great Lakes Area), "The Corn and Wheat Region" (the Interior Lowlands and Eastern Great Plains), "The Cotton, Timber, Tobacco and Textile Region" (the South), "The Arid Agriculture and Mineral Region" (the Arid and Semi-Arid West), and "The Salmon, Lumber and Waterpower Region" (the Pacific Northwest) may be used to advantage. By using these larger divisions it is easier to trace their relationship to each other and to the life of the nation and the work is simplified for both the teacher and the student.

The Use of Type Areas in Picturing Geographical Conditions

Having determined the limits of the regions to be used the next task is to present a picture of the geographical conditions existing in each. The first step in this direction is to give the students an accurate knowledge of the human life and activity of the region. This can be done by a clear description of the general economic, political and social life of the area and by considering the type of people who inhabit it. After having considered the life of the region the physical environment there found should be presented to the students. Location, climate, relief, soil, resources and transportation facilities should all be stressed and their relation to the

human development of the area should be clearly pointed out. In this connection the construction of maps by the students will again be found valuable. If the region selected is large a picture of the geographical conditions within it can best be given by the use of type areas. By type areas are meant localities which are typical of larger sections. For example, if the South is being used as a region the following type areas might be selected: Montgomery County, Alabama, to illustrate life in the cotton raising districts; Orange County, Florida, to depict conditions in the citrus fruit belt; Durham County, North Carolina, to show the development in the tobacco raising districts; Jefferson County, Alabama, to illustrate southern iron and steel manufacturing; and Winkler County, Texas, to portray life in the oil fields. Other type areas in the South may be added if thought desirable. In like manner an excellent picture of life in the Corn Belt may be given by presenting an intensive study of any county in central Iowa; a picture of Bucks County, Pennsylvania would well illustrate life in the Northern Piedmont; and a picture of Center County, Pennsylvania, would illustrate the life of the Ridge and Valley Area. Such type areas may be presented by first giving a clear description of the every day life of the people inhabiting it. In connection with this description pictures are of great value and should be used freely. If facilities are available for the use of slides or films they will be found to aid materially in presenting the life of the area in such a way as to catch the interest of the students. After the life of the people has been clearly portrayed the environmental factors which influence that life should be considered and their relationship to the human activity should be clearly pointed out. The number of type areas used for each human use region will depend upon the differences of conditions which exist within it. The use of such type areas will make more understandable for the students the geographical conditions existing within each region. Care should be taken to point out that type areas are not presented merely to picture the limited area described but because they are, at least to a considerable extent, typical of larger regions.

THE PROBLEM OF RELATING AND TYING TOGETHER THE REGIONS CONSIDERED

After each human use region has been considered in this way the teacher is confronted with the task of relating these regions to each other and to the life of the nation and of so binding them together

that the student will retain a unified picture of the country. This may first be accomplished by comparing and contrasting the life in the various regions and bringing out the factors of environment and human characteristics to which such similarities and differences are due. For example, the agriculture of the South might be contrasted with that of the Corn and Wheat Region and the differences accounted for by differences in climate, soil, relief, type of population, and any other factor which might play a part. In like manner the manufacturing of the Northeast might be contrasted with that of the North Central Manufacturing and Raw Material Region and such factors as raw materials, power, labor supply, markets, and available capital compared in order to show the reasons for the differences. In the same way the contribution of each region to the national life should be stressed; this should include economic, social, and cultural contributions.

The tie up between the various regions can best be accomplished by a discussion of trade and communication. This will show the manner in which the various sections of the country exchange goods and ideas and will stress their interdependence. The chief types of goods sent out from each region may be indicated and their destinations pointed out. In the same way the important types of goods imported into each region may be studied and their points of origin indicated. If this is done for every region their interdependence will be made clear and the students will understand the part which each plays in the national life. In this way the importance of each region in world trade will also be indicated. By tying up the regions in this manner the students will retain a unified picture of the country rather than a group of pictures of apparently unrelated regions. In this tying up process the construction of a map of the country showing the principal lines of trade and communication will be found to be of material aid.

ADVANTAGES OF THE PROPOSED METHOD OF PRESENTING REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

The method, above indicated, of presenting the geography of a continent or other large areas has many advantages. By utilizing large human use regions the work is simplified from the point of view of the teacher and is made easier for the student to understand and appreciate; by the use of type areas the life within each region and the factors responsible for that life are clearly portrayed; and

by comparing and contrasting the regions and binding together the various sections the students can understand their relationship to each other and to the life of the nation and will retain a unified picture of the country. Also by constantly relating the human activity of an area to the physical conditions there existing, stress is placed upon that relationship between life and environment which is the keynote of modern geography. The exact application of this method must, of necessity, depend upon the maturity and background of the class using it. The older and more advanced the class the more map construction and attention to detail should be required while in elementary classes it will be found necessary to eliminate much of this detailed work. Thus the responsibility for the exact application of this as of any other method must rest upon the teacher and depend upon her knowledge of the class to be instructed.

A UNIT ON AFRICA

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THE GENERAL PLAN OF WORK

It is the policy of the South Pittsburg Elementary School to carry out one well-worked-out unit in each grade during the spring term of each school year. South Pittsburg, Tennessee is an industrial village located on the Lee Highway about forty miles from Chattanooga. It is believed by the director of instruction that no piece of work which can be done results in more good to the children and more good to the teacher than a well-directed unit. The subject matter for the unit may be taken from any school subject. It may take any length of time necessary for the completion of the unit. It must be suited to the grade; and preferably, it should be chosen by the children.

It is the purpose of the unit (1) to enlist the hearty cooperation of the children, (2) to teach the children to work together, (3) to furnish the opportunity for purposeful practice in oral English, (4) to give that feeling of satisfaction to the students which comes from having done a finished piece of work, and (5) to bring a closer relationship between the school and the home.

During the spring of 1928, a unit on the Panama Canal was done by the sixth grade, one on Africa by the two sections of the fifth grade, coal and its transportation by the two sections of the fourth grade, and so on down thru the grades.

SELECTING THE BIG UNIT

The children in the sixth grade had finished the required text book work in geography. One of two projects was suggested as topics of interest to be looked into, namely, (1) a trip around the Mediterranean Coast, and (2) a trip following the proposed Cape-to-Cairo Route thru Africa. Members of the class were to think over these two suggestions and to decide which journey they would prefer to take; which trip would furnish the most available material, and which one would be the most delightful. After due deliberation with arguments "pro" and "con," the Cape-to-Cairo Route thru the heart of Africa was agreed upon because it probably furnished more opportunity for excitement.

PREPARATION FOR WORKING OUT THE UNIT

An excellent suggestion for this unit was found by the writer in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY for April, 1927, page 143, "Northward Ho" by Ida Bell Taylor. All of the helps given in this article were used. Letters were written the manager of Railways and Harbors, Capetown, Union of South Africa, and to the offices of the Union of South Africa Government, 11 Broadway, New York City, asking for all available free material with regard to the proposed trip. The best three letters out of each set were mailed, the class acting as judges for the best letters.

A rapid review of the African continent was made. Especially was the climate and rainfall studied, the wet and dry seasons, the causes of these, the thick dense foliage region of central Africa with its "upper and lower story," the grass lands, the white man's Africa, the Nile Valley with its teeming millions, the Nile's seasonal overflow, Liberia and Abyssinia—the only independent sections of Africa left to the Africans—with interesting bits of history of each section.

Current Sunday issues of the *London Times* contained half-page articles advertising Uganda, Kenya, Tanganyika, and Rhodesia. These sections of Africa are also the white man's country and their

marvelous possibilities were glowingly told by the *Times'* correspondent in Africa. No material found gave such detailed descriptions, or showed the future of this portion of Africa so grafically, or furnished more pleasure to the children than did these Sunday issues of the *London Times.*

Material was obtained from the *National Geographic Magazine,* from Compton's *Pictured Encyclopedia,* and from *Alice in Jungleland* by A. N. Williamson. The children found some good books on Africa at home. One of the best of these was on Livingstone and Stanley. All of this material contained excellent pictures.

Wide reading was done by the teachers, by the children, by the supervisor, and by the director of instruction. No specific plan had yet been devised. Some one suggested that the trip be started at New York, and that two "good talkers" from the class be selected to make the journey, and that these two be met by different representative types of Africa as they went from place to place on the journey. The plan developed further, that this journey should be thrown into the form of a play. It was further decided that when the play had been worked out in detail, and was ready to be given, that the parents should be invited for an afternoon's entertainment. It was further decided that each pupil, fifty-three in all, should take an active part. This seemed to be a rather large program for a fifth grade to undertake, but each member of the class got busy.

The next solution was to plan the exact trip and to think thru what should take place at each stop. The two "good talkers" chosen by the class were only to carry the thread of the play; the vehicle, as it were, around which to build. The other members of the class were the representatives in Africa who were to present all of the facts. As the plan grew, the children became more and more interested. The two characters chosen were a "Girls' Friendly Worker," Margaret Norman, representing the Girls' Friendly Society of South Pittsburg, going to Africa on an inspection tour visiting the Girls' Friendly Societies in Africa, and Mr. Firestone, representing the Firestone Rubber Company, going to Liberia to look after the company's experimental plantations in that country, and from there on an exploratory tour from Capetown to Alexandria before returning home. No other parts were assigned or chosen until the play was practically completed.

The plan of the trip was finally decided upon. Miss Norman and Mr. Firestone left New York on July 20, 1928 on board the

S.S. Olympic. Captain Anderson and the passengers on the boat were members of the class. The students even suggested that music be provided because a large boat always has a good orchestra. This music was furnished by the members of the class who could play instruments.

SUMMARY OF THE SCENES

Scene I. New York Harbor on board the *S.S. Olympic.* The *Olympic* is leaving her pier. The characters are Miss Norman and Mr. Firestone, other passengers on board, and the musicians.

Scene II. The *Olympic* has arrived at Monrovia, Liberia, where she will dock for two days. The party is met by representatives of the Firestone Experimental Plantations, by Miss Fulton, a missionary worker, by the American Consul, by the President of Liberia, and by just "some fillers."

In Monrovia, they learned something of Liberia's interesting history, something of its people and their customs, and something of its future possibilities. Mr. Firestone goes over his rubber plantation discussing its drawbacks and its advantages.

Scene III. From Liberia the boat goes to Capetown. The party is met by a missionary and her friends from the Hottentot Country. A native tells Miss Norman of his country, the people, their habits and customs.

One of the Boer farmers tells the party of his truck garden from which he ships vegetables and fruits to London, Liverpool, and other English markets just as our truck gardeners ship their vegetables and fruits to the large eastern cities in the United States.

The party visits the office of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway. The manager very kindly tells them of the proposed all-rail route from the Cape to Cairo, of Cecil Rhodes and his dream for Africa, of his burial place in the solid rock on top of one of the hills in Rhodesia.

Scene IV. The party leaves Capetown, making the next stop at the Kimberley diamond mines. Here they are met by a mining engineer, a community worker, and a social service nurse. They are shown over the mines and gather much interesting data—the history of these mines, the story of the first diamonds, the laborers in the mines, the control of the production and sale of diamonds.

Scene V. The next stop for these two is at the marvelous Victoria Falls, the largest waterfalls in the world situated, on the Zam-

bezi River. The cloudlike spray from these falls rises to a distance of 3,000 feet and is visible on a clear day ten miles or more away, and the roar of these tumbling waters can be heard at a distance of more than twenty miles.

Here the "two South Pittsburg talkers" find a party of tourists eager for information and an engineer sent by the British Government to study the possibilities of harnessing these waters which are more powerful even than Niagara.

Miss Norman and Mr. Firestone have traveled all the way by rail on the South African and Rhodesian railroads. At Bukama, on a branch of the Congo, they go by motor and then by caravan trek. Each mode of travel is quite interesting to the two American travelers.

Scene VI. At Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika, a missionary tells them the story of Stanley who was sent out by the New York *Herald* to find that grand and marvelous man Livingstone, dead or alive. This same missionary tells them of Stanley's exploring and opening up this vast region under the direction of King Leopold of Belgium.

Scene VII. In the heart of the equatorial Africa, at one of the little native villages, the "two South Pittsburgers" stop to rest. They meet an elephant hunter, a naturalist, a motion picture writer, several photographers for the National Geographic Society, and a party of tourists. They have all just climbed one of the foothills of the famous Ruwenzori Mountains and are looking down into the valley. In this scene one of the most interesting and most instrucive conversations takes place. The naturalist tells about the African elephant; a tourist tells about the boa and python; another tourist tells about the spitting blacksnake; the entomologist tells about the tsetse fly; the weather reporter tells about the rain, and heat, and vegetation in this region; a third tourist tells about the pygmies found by Stanley. The students enjoyed working out this scene more than any other.

Scene VIII. This scene takes place somewhere in Abyssinia. Miss Norman and Mr. Firestone are met by the daughter of the French representative to Abyssinia, by a Mr. Kilgore, manager of Abyssinia exports, by Mr. Ridley, a missionary, by a Red Cross nurse, and by another party of tourists. The mountains of Abyssinia are striking because of their steepness and ruggedness. The party learned that these mountains have been both a protection and a barrier to the country. There are few railroads in Abyssinia.

Mr. Firestone suggested that if these mountains were in the United States "we would put railroads thru them or around them." Mr. Ridley, who has long been a missionary to the Abyssinians, tells the party something of the interesting history of the country and of the people who claim to be descendants of Noah's son, Ham.

Scene IX. From Abyssinia, the "South Pittsburgers" go to Khartum, an old slave trading center. Here they meet another party of tourists, an Arab, who is the son of an old slave trader, and a representative of the English Government.

The Arab tells the party of the old slave trading customs and practices. The Englishman tells them the story of Gordon, who held out against the Moslems for ten months and then surrendered and was killed with his garrison only two days before help came.

Scene X. This scene is at the famous Assuan Dam. Miss Norman and Mr. Firestone meet Mr. Kellerman, the British engineer who had charge of building the dam. Another group of tourists joins them as Mr. Kellerman shows them about, giving much information on the building of the dam. He tells them that the cement used is like that made by the Dixie Portland Company (which is located in South Pittsburg and Richard City). This dam affords water for over 400,000 acres of land, and cost the British Government about $30,000,000 according to Mr. Kellerman, the engineer.

Scene XI. From Assuan, the party goes by camel to the Sphinx. Scene eleven is a short one in which Arab guides tell about the camel as a beast of burden, the hump, the storage stomach, the "corns" on his knees, and the narrow slits for his nose. The party is told of the peculiar rocking pace, the swiftness over the desert, and the many uses of this "ship of the desert."

Scene XII. At the pyramids, Miss Norman, Mr. Firestone, the engineer, and several parties of tourists inspect these ancient monuments. The Arab guides tell the history and show them about the vast structures. The Sphinx also attracts its share of attention. King Tut's tomb is not in this place; it is in the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings. In structure, the guide explains, it is quite different, but in furnishings quite similar.

The party, before it leaves the pyramids, turns toward the desert, and talks of the many travelers who have perished in its sands, of its terrible sand storms, of the desert bandits, and of the possibilities of this enormous heat region.

Scene XIII. From the Pyramids, the party goes direct to Cairo.

They find Cairo a very cosmopolitan city with a strong French flavor. The many peddlers attract attention, as do the women with their veils and the men in flowing robes and turbans. A good hotel is welcomed, and plans for the return trip are made by way of Alexandria, thru the Mediterranean, by London, and back to New York.

A wonderful trip this has been for the South Pittsburg fifth grade. In giving the play, no especial setting was used, and no costumes were available. This would have added to the attractiveness, but the time was too limited.

CHECKING ACHIEVEMENTS

In order to check the students on the subject matter, a ten-question true-false test (or some other new-type test) was given each day on the subject matter studied the previous day. A daily record was kept, and a number of children averaged nine out of ten correct on these tests. A summary spelling test was given using forty African words. Even the results of the spelling were most excellent.

There is something about a unit well done that grips both pupils and teachers. The students are proud of themselves.

The parents greatly enjoyed the afternoon because every child had a part, and every child was vitally interested in the outcome. A social hour followed in which sandwiches and tea were served by the students.

GEOGRAPHY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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In a conversation with a secondary school principal, the subject of geography was mentioned. As the discussion continued such questions as these were considered: Has geography a place in the course of study? If so, how much time should be devoted to it? What should be the nature and aims in offering it? What should be the nature of the course or courses? Are teachers prepared to teach geography? Are schools equipped with apparatus and books for teaching geography?

This meeting prompted the writer, who has had nine years of experience teaching geography in the secondary schools of Illinois

and Ohio, to make an investigation of conditions as they have been and the tendency for the future. In order to have this investigation carried out in a systematic way the following procedure was decided upon:

First, a brief history of geography as a science was procured and organized as an introduction.

Second, a questionnaire was prepared and sent to one hundred ten (110) secondary schools of Ohio in an effort to learn the present status of geography in the secondary schools of that state, Ohio serving, in this presentation, as a fairly representative state.

Third, a brief questionnaire was sent to five leaders in each of the following fields—educational science, geography, and public school administration—in an effort to learn the attitude of each on geography in the secondary school curriculum.

Fourth, a summary was made of the material found in the first three parts.

Fifth, a conclusion was drawn from the material presented earlier in this thesis. The writer draws this conclusion, not from his own point of view, but based upon facts as they are found in the thesis.

SUMMARY

First, geography had its beginnings before history but at first it was a pure science rather than a subject in the curriculum; the contributions of the Chaldeans, Hindoos, Jews, and Egyptians, giving us geometry, the ideas of a spherical earth, circular measure, the calendar, knowledge of the eclipse, and the first measurements of the earth, in early times; the Romans, making use of maps and accounts of their newly acquired possessions, later; Strabo, a systematic geography, 20 B.C.; the period of Discovery and Exploration, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with an emphasis upon geography in the elementary school curriculum; the influence of Francke, the latter part of the seventeenth century, toward geography in the secondary school curriculum; and the tremendous material development of the world in the last fifty years, all go to show that there has been a fundamental interest taken in geography from the beginning.

Second, the present status of geography in the secondary schools of Ohio, based upon reports made by eighty out of one hundred and ten schools, a sampling, gave the following results: Eighty-three per cent reported offering the course in the curriculum. Thirty-four

per cent reported having the course in the tenth or sophomore year. The next grade in frequency was the ninth with eighteen per cent. The same number of schools, thirty-three, reported offering one semester and two semester courses, while one school stated having more than two semesters of geography. Geography is as yet an elective subject in the secondary school as ninety-six per cent reported. Geography is found to a greater extent in the commercial course than in any other course. The writer was interested in finding facts about geography in the elementary schools where these high schools were located. Grade six was found to be the most common in offering geography in the elementary school. Little or no geography was found below the fourth grade. Of the sixty-seven secondary schools having geography it was found that "Commercial Geography" was the most commonly taught with "Physical Geography" second and "Industrial" third.

Maps, which are essential in the proper study of geography, were found to be only fairly satisfactory in their quality and adaptability. Most schools made no provision for a moving picture machine in the teaching of geography.

Seventy per cent of the schools reported no provisions made for observation and field work. Of the methods of classroom procedure the question-answer method was found to be the most commonly used. Only eleven per cent of the schools reported that teachers were especially trained for geography teaching. Geography was added, in most cases, to some one else's teaching load. Most schools reported favorably on books of travel, discovery and exploration; correlation of geography and literature; current magazines, papers, and books, which are of great assistance in the successful teaching of geography.

In the third place the writer sets forth the point of view of leaders in the fields of educational science, geography, and public school administration, toward geography in the secondary school curriculum. All leaders in the field of educational science reported geography should be found in the secondary school curriculum. There was a difference of opinion as to the year or years in which it should be offered. However, all favored an early and later year or all years of the secondary school. All favored either physical and commercial or industrial, or a thoro course in geographic principles. The values of geography to the secondary school pupil remained about the same—most saying it gave political and com-

mercial information, served as a basis for other sciences, had a cultural value, and offered possible vocational outlooks.

In the field of geography all leaders reported the subject should be offered in the curriculum. All but one favored an early and late year in the secondary school. They favored the study either of the local community first and then the outside world, or physical geography followed by a course in commercial, industrial, or special problems. These leaders gave practically the same values of geography to pupils in the secondary school as those given by the leaders in educational science, except they went a little more into detail.

The leaders in public school administration likewise all favored geography in the secondary school curriculum. Regarding the year or years in which it should be offered they all agree quite well with the leaders in educational science. As to the types of geography course or courses to be offered, they again agree with the leaders in educational science, saying it should have physical and commercial or industrial phases, but they further emphasize the point that it should be closely related to other subjects in the curriculum. The leaders state geography is valuable to pupils in the secondary school as a basis for further study, in interpreting fundamental problems, preparing for citizenship, and promoting proper world relationships.

CONCLUSION

First, eighty-three per cent of the schools reporting had geography in the secondary school while all fifteen of the leaders, or one hundred per cent, responded by saying they believed geography should be in the curriculum. To be consistent in practice with the theory of educational leaders it would be necessary for every secondary school to have geography in the curriculum.

Second, from the questionnaires on geography in the Ohio high schools it was found that nearly fifty per cent of the schools had one semester, and the rest two or more semesters of geography. All of the educational leaders but one stated they believed geography should be found in two or more years of the secondary school. To be consistent with the point of view of these educational leaders it would be not only necessary to offer geography in the secondary school but it should occupy more of a place than most schools are now giving it.

Third, the reports from the sixty-seven Ohio high schools show

that "Commercial Geography" is the most commonly offered of the geography courses. The educational leaders take a broader view of this point. They favor either physical and commercial combined or a course in geographic principles which would permit both to be taught. They generally agree that a basis of physical geography is necessary for a further study of the subject.

Fourth, eighty-eight per cent of the schools reported that the teachers were not trained for geography teaching yet the leaders imply that a considerable amount of special training is necessary in order to realize their goal.

Fifth, the writer wishes to state briefly, the chief features of the Geography Department found in the high school, Leominster, Massachusetts. The details may be obtained by writing Superintendent W. H. Perry, Leominster, Mass. This is presented not as an ideal but as a middle ground between what is found in the Ohio high schools, and the point of view of the educational leaders mentioned here. The features are:

1. Teachers are specialized in geography.
2. Five classes are organized—four required and one elective.
3. Theses are written on special subjects, such as cities.
4. Room equipped with maps, globe, six hundred lantern slides, and cabinet exhibits of manufacturers.
5. One hundred and fifty pupils are taking geography work.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS

The National Council of Geography Teachers was organized fifteen years ago to increase the effectiveness of geography teaching in the schools of America by promotion of national educational movements, by cooperation in the organization and development of State Councils, and in such other ways as the officers might from time to time determine. It was decided at the outset that membership in the National Council should be open to any person interested in the advancement of geographic education, and that State Councils should be organized as rapidly as circumstances permitted. It was believed that state leaders knew local conditions best and that they should be free to determine the method of state organization and qualifications of members in the respective State Councils. Representatives elected by the State Councils were to constitute a Board of Directors which should

have the full governing power of the National Council of Geography Teachers.

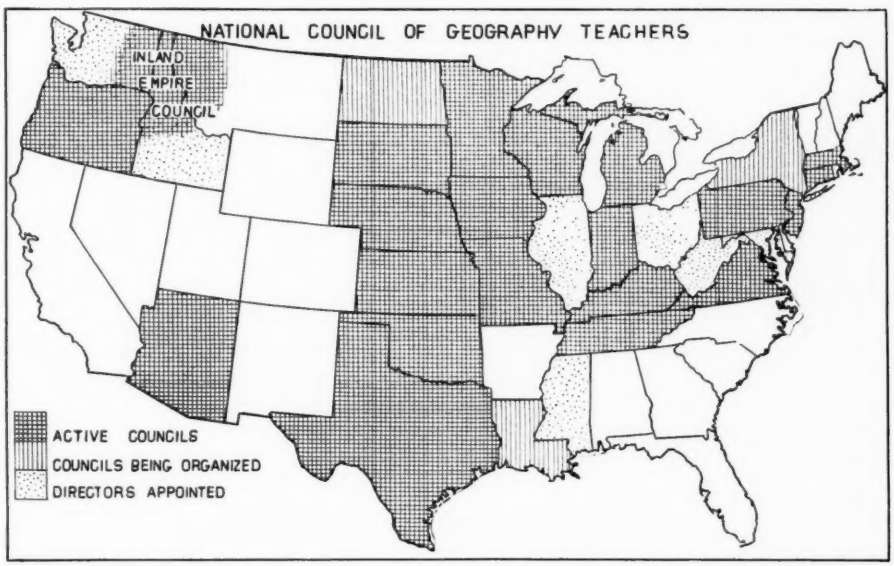
The National Council includes in its membership and among its active workers all of the leaders in the field of geographic education in America, and also most of the more able geography teachers thruout our entire school system. Hence membership in the National Council has come to carry marked prestige with it. The annual meetings of the National Council are held in various parts of the country from year to year. These meetings bring together hundreds of the active teachers of the country for the discussion of present geographic problems, and for conference with fellow workers in the field of geographic education. Various phases of geographic education in the public school system have been emphasized at these annual meetings. The meeting this year (See November JOURNAL) will concentrate discussion upon the content of the introductory college course in geography. The National Council also has committees carrying on research investigations in various phases of geographic education. Committee reports are published in its official journal, and are usually distributed in separate form in addition to such general publication.

THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY

In 1920 the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY was presented to the National Council by the American Geographical Society of New York and since then has been published for it by A. J. Nystrom & Company, Chicago, Illinois. Altho the annual dues of the National Council of Geography Teachers are only $2.00, the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY is sent to all members. Non-members, libraries, schools, and other institutions, who commonly secure their magazines thru various agencies, may obtain the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY at $2.50 a year. The JOURNAL has a much larger circulation than the membership of the National Council. Last year nearly 49,000 copies were printed. If each member gives active support to the official publication, the JOURNAL should attain more than three times its present circulation in a comparatively short time. In addition to the official reports of the National Council, the JOURNAL carries hundreds of pages of geographic material written especially for the use of teachers and students and scores of articles dealing with all new phases of geography teaching, such as problems, projects, type studies, tests and measurements, etc. It annotates or reviews practically every new book in the field of geographic education and nearly every issue carries several pages of "Notes and News" which have been gathered from many parts of the world. No geography teacher, in the elementary grades, high school or college, can hope to keep abreast of the times without such a source of information. You and your school cannot afford to be without the JOURNAL.

STATE COUNCILS

The accompanying map is an interesting portrayal of enthusiasm in geographic education. It shows twenty-one active State Councils, that is, State Councils that are carrying on active work. In addition there is the active Inland Empire Council made up of portions of four states. In addition to participation in the Inland Empire Council, the state of Oregon has an independent State Council functioning in the western part of the state. There are also three states now in various stages of being organized. The state of New York is to have eight separate geography sections. Louisiana and North Dakota will probably be organized during the present winter. The



NOTE: West Virginia and Louisiana established State Councils after this map was made.

map also shows that geography teachers in seven states have been invited to assume responsibility for organizing a State Council in their respective states.

Many of the State Councils have done very constructive work, and have won the highest esteem of educational leaders in their state. Most State Councils are organized as a part of, or are independent bodies meeting with, the larger state educational association. This is undoubtedly the best affiliation that can be made. In many states an annual meeting for the state is held as well as various sectional meetings. At these meetings the problems of geography teaching within the state are discussed and plans made for making such teaching more effective. These state organizations are very great stimulators of interest in the field of geographic education. Several

State Councils issue a monthly or quarterly Bulletin to their members and have published numerous extensive reports. Such states include Oklahoma, Nebraska, Kansas, Indiana, Iowa, and Pennsylvania. In other states, the work of the Council has been chiefly responsible for the advancement of geography teaching in the high schools of the state, and in standardizing geography teaching in the teachers colleges.

The map also shows a considerable number of inactive states. In these states, as well as some of the states in which leaders have been invited to organize, a great variety of problems are confronted. In some there are entrenched interests that are uncompromisingly opposed to the promotion of anything that they do not propose. In some cases it would be poor policy to oppose these interests and local leaders feel that greater good can be accomplished thru the existing form. In some states sparse population with very few geography teachers make organization extremely difficult. In still others physiographic features so divide the state that organization is next to impossible. It is probable that State Councils cannot be formed and kept active in a number of these states. However, it is certain that only adequate leadership is needed for organization and effective working of State Councils in several states where none exists at present. Vigorous Councils now exist in some states having far greater handicaps.

SUMMARY

The National Council in fifteen years has grown to a large and influential organization and its governing body is made up of representatives from State Councils thruout the country. It holds national meetings, carries on research investigations in the field of geographic education, publishes the results, and issues regularly an official journal—The JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY. There are now active State Councils in nearly half of the states. These councils are doing very effective work in stimulating interest in geography and geography teaching; in the development of courses of study; in publishing Bulletins and reports; and thru the programs presented at their state and sectional meetings. State Councils should be organized in several states where no definite organization exists at present but it is probably too much to expect an organization in each of the states. Membership in the National Council is now recognized by many school administrators as a badge of distinction and of professional interest. Are you now a member of the National Council and of your State Council? If you are not, now is the time to become a member. Send your membership dues of $2.00 to the undersigned.

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EDITORIAL NOTES AND NEWS

Since the discovery that chaulmoogra oil was an effective cure for leprosy hope for the eradication of that dread disease has become world wide. Because of this interest the Burma Forestry Department is now collecting information concerning the chaulmoogra trees of Burma, which are now the principal source of the oil. It is also collecting and distributing seed to various parts of the world in response to many requests. The Department plans to publish a bulletin, about 1930, giving full chemical and botanical data concerning the chaulmoogra trees of Burma.

The largest dock of the new Welland Canal was opened for traffic last September. This dock is 87 feet wide, 40 feet deep, and 1,380 feet long, and guards the entrance to the canal from Lake Erie.

The United States Department of Interior has just issued a new pamphlet entitled "General Information Concerning the Territory of Alaska." This publication is distributed free. The United States Geological Survey has also published several hundred reports giving detailed information on the geology, mineral deposits and general geographic features of Alaska. Numerous other governmental agencies have issued reports on the Territory. These include the Forest Service, Biological Survey, Bureau of Public Roads, Weather Bureau, Bureau of Mines, Bureau of the Census, Bureau of Fisheries, Coast and Geodetic Survey, General Land Office, National Park Service, and the Bureau of Education. It is possible for every teacher to equip his school with excellent material concerning Alaska. All of these reports may be obtained free as long as the supply lasts.

During 1928 the inbound intercoastal traffic of the North and South Atlantic states was almost three times as large as the outbound traffic from those ports. The outbound traffic of the Gulf ports was about one-third larger than the inbound, and on the Pacific coast the outbound was about 2.5 times greater than the inbound. In other words, this means that in our intercoastal traffic our Atlantic coast imports far more than it exports, while on our Pacific coast the situation is reversed.

Motor bus traffic over our rapidly developing highways has increased by leaps and bounds during recent years. Recent figures show that independent carriers operated busses over 249,279 miles of highways, electric railways operated busses over 23,000 miles, and steam railways over 16,790 miles. It is interesting to note that there are 6,200 independent motor bus companies and they operate more than 34,000 busses. It is probable that the number of independent carriers will decrease with the growth of large corporations establishing unified bus system thruout the country.

Electrical service is probably more widely used in the United States than in any other country of the world. Data collected last June show that 67 per cent of all the homes in the United States received electric service daily. Mississippi ranks lowest with only 17 per cent of its homes equipped for electrical service. California and New York probably rank first, approximating 100 per cent. Ranking next to these states is New Jersey with 99 per cent; Massachusetts with 93 per cent; and Rhode Island with 91 per cent. These data are one of the many indicators of the high standard of living in America.

Sailing vessels once reigned supreme as ocean carriers. They were displaced by steamships—either coal or oil burners. Now it appears that steamships must give way to something still more efficient. Out of the total gross tonnage of vessels under construction in the world last September, 54 per cent will be motor driven, i.e., driven by internal combustion engines. Out of all types of merchant vessels under construction at that time the tonnage of those to be motor driven exceeded the combined tonnage of all the others by nearly a quarter of a million tons.

Ceylon opened its new commercial museum at Colombo last summer. Tea, rubber, coconut products, and graphite occupy prominent positions in the display.

In 1928 foreign trade in Nicaragua was the largest in its history. Coffee is the leading money crop and formed one-half of the total exports. Other important export products are the banana, cabinet woods, cocoa, coconuts, gold, hides and skins, and sugar.

A night service of rapid express freight trains has recently been inaugurated between the principal industrial centers of England. Some of the trains attain a speed of more than 100 miles per hour. The service is of special value in the conveyance of meat, fish, and fruits.

The *Geographical Press*, formerly of Madison, Wisconsin, now has its headquarters at Columbia University.

According to a recent report from Lloyds Register of shipping, 59½ per cent of the total tonnage afloat depends upon coal for its motive power, 24½ upon oil, and 9¾ per cent is motor driven.

The Geography Club of Western Pennsylvania, organized seven years ago, has recently extended its constructive work to include the publication of a four-page bulletin.

Have you a copy of the new Airway Map of the United States in Aëronautic Bulletin No. 8? You may obtain a copy from the office of your district manager of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

Those desiring information on radio broadcasting for schools may be interested in a report recently published by the Payne Fund, One Madison Avenue, New York. This report describes in detail the work of the Ohio School of the Air, together with other experiments in the use of radio in education. Dr. W. R. McConnell of Miami University was a speaker on the geography programs of the Ohio School.

A part of Mussolini's program for a greater Italy has been nicknamed the "Battle of Wheat." This battle was directed toward an enlarged production of wheat by increasing the acreage, but, more especially by increasing the yield per acre. At the same time a home market for the increase was hoped to be had by urging a greater consumption of white bread. That the battle has been won in part may be inferred from the fact that Italy's last wheat crop (probably 257,000,000 bushels) exceeds that of any previous year. This yield probably averages 21.4 bushels per acre. The yield per acre during the past 4 years is more than double that of the 4-year period 1911-14.

The Eyes are the Windows of the Mind

Figure 113. An airplane view of Columbus, showing a great skyscraper office building. Part of the state capitol shows in the lower right corner of the picture.

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The Ports of Hampton Roads, Annual. 1929. Prepared by H. M. Thompson and Clarence W. Newman. 127 pp. Illustrated. Hampton Roads Maritime Exchange, Norfolk, Va. 1928.

Of special interest are the facts concerning the setting of the ports, the analysis of the traffic thru them, and their facilities for handling this traffic.

Martin Johnson. **Safari.** 294 pp. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N.Y. 1928. $5.00.

A Saga of the African Blue. Interesting accounts of the behaviour of the wild animal life in the Kenya Colony made by the Johnson's when filming the animals in their free and unmolested state.

Canada's Natural Resources. 32 pp. Illustrated. Prepared by the Department of the Interior, Ottawa, Canada. 1928.

Brief sketches reviewing the principal features of each of Canada's political divisions, as wel las an abridged classified directory of departments from which to get information on Canada's natural resources.

New York State Museum Bulletin No. 279. 68 pp. Illustrated. Published by the University of the State of New York, Albany. 1929.

Twenty-second report of the director of the State Museum and science department. One article of special interest is, "The Importance of Preserving Wilderness Conditions."

Charles E. Artman. **New England Manufactures in the Nations Commerce.** Trade Information Bulletin No. 582. 36 pp. 1928. 10 cents.

An analysis of the commercial significance, the general nature, the changes in, and localization of manufacturing in New England.

E. T. Chamberlain. **French and German Inland Waterways.** Trade Information Bulletin No. 597. 12 pp. 1929. 10 cents.

The outstanding conclusion reached in this bulletin is the "durability of water transportation as an essential element in the life of nations." A more detailed report is forthcoming.

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Geografisk Tidsskrift
Geografiska Annaler
Geografiska Föreningen i Göteborg, Meddelanden
Geografiski Raksti
Geografski Vestnik
Geografsko Drustvofi Belgrade, Glasnik
Geographic Society of Chicago, Bulletin
Geographical Review
Geographical Society of Philadelphia, Bulletin
Geographical Society of Philadelphia, Special Publications
Geographical Society of Quebec, Bulletin
La Géographie
Geographische Abhandlungen
Geographische Bausteine
Geographisch-Ethnographische Gesellschaft, Zürich, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft, Hanover, Jahresberichte
Geographische Gesellschaft in Hamburg, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft in München, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft in Nürnberg, Mitteilungen und Jahresberichte
Geographische Geselschaft in Wien, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft und Naturhistorisches Museum in Lübeck, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft zu Greifswald Jahrbuch
Geographische Gesellschaft zu Jena, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft zu Rostock, Mitteilungen
Geographische Gesellschaft zu Würzburg, Mitteilungen
Geofraphische Zeitschrift
Geographischer Anzeiger
Geographischer Jahresbericht über Österreich
Geographisches Jahrbuch
Geography (Aberystwyth)
Der Geologe: Ergänzung zum Geologenkalender
Geological Magazine (London)
Geological Society of America, Bulletin
Geological Society of China, Peking, Bulletin
Geological Society of London, Quarterly Journal
Geological Society of South Africa, Johannesburg, Transactions
Geologische Bundesenstalt (Vienna), Jahrbuch
Geologische Bundesanstalt (Vienna), Verhandlungen
Geologische Charakterbilder
Geologisches Zentralblatt
Geologists' Association, London, Proceedings

SOCIAL SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

Columbia University

611 Fayerweather Hall **New York, New York**

Transportation in the Mississippi and Ohio Valleys. 257 pp., 85 maps, grafs and photos. Transportation Series No. 2. War Department and U. S. Shipping Board. Government Printing Office. 1929. $1.25.

This report presents a vast amount of information concerning the Mississippi waterway system, its ports and terminal facilities, and commerce moving over the system.

Mary Josephine Booth. **Material on Geography.** 101 pp. Published by the Compiler, Charleston, Illinois. 1927.

Fourth revised edition. A list of pamphlets and other material on geography, including commercial products, industries, transportation; also a list of Educational Exhibits, a section on Visual Education, and a list of addresses of equipment for the teaching of geography.

James B. Gillett. **The Texas Ranger.** 218 pp. Illustrated. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. 1927. $1.20.

This supplementary reader for intermediate grades is the eleventh volume in the Pioneer Life Series, edited by Howard R. Driggs. Gillett, himself a ranger, tells the dramatic part played by the ranger in keeping law and order on our southwestern frontier in the seventies.

Bessie L. Ashton. **The Geonomic Aspects of the Illinois Waterway.** University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences. Vol. 14, No. 2. 177 pp. Illustrated. The University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. 1927. $1.00.

This study reviews the historic aspects of this waterway and endeavors to discover and weigh the physical and economic factors that will be involved in its operation.

John B. Appleton. **The Iron and Steel Industry of the Calumet District.** University of Illinois Studies in Social Sciences. Vol. XIII, No. 2. 133 pp. Illustrated. Published by the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. 1927. $1.50.

A study in economic geography. This analysis of the iron and steel industry includes a discussion of the extent of the industry; the local conditions in which it operates as to site, labor and markets; and its location with reference to sources of ore, fuel and limestone.

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